

# NOTES ON MATRICES OF FULL COLUMN (ROW) RANK

Shayle R. Searle

Biometrics Unit, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. 14853

BU-1361-M

August 1996

## ABSTRACT

A useful left (right) inverse of a full column (row) matrix is the Moore-Penrose inverse; and linear equations based on a full column (row) rank matrix have only one (many a) solution. These solutions are characterized.

---

Key words: left inverse, right inverse, Moore-Penrose inverse, solution to linear equations.

## LEFT INVERSES

$\mathbf{A}_{r \times c}$  can have a left inverse  $\mathbf{L}$ , such that  $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$  only if  $r \geq c$ , and it does have left inverses only if it has full column rank,  $r_{\mathbf{A}} = c$ . Then for given  $\mathbf{A}$  there can be many values of  $\mathbf{L}$ , one of which is  $\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}'$ , the Moore-Penrose inverse of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

### Example

For

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 24 & 6 \\ 6 & 14 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{300} \begin{bmatrix} 14 & -6 \\ -6 & 24 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}' = \frac{1}{300} \begin{bmatrix} 14 & -6 \\ -6 & 24 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{30} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 4 \\ 6 & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The conditions for  $\mathbf{A}^+$  being the Moore-Penrose of  $\mathbf{A}$  are easily verified: first, that  $\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A}$  is symmetric, which it is because  $\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$ , then  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}^+$ , and then that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+ = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{30} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 4 \\ 6 & 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is symmetric.

## RIGHT INVERSES

The existence of right inverses is very much (but not entirely) the converse of the situation for left inverses.  $\mathbf{A}_{r \times c}$  can have right inverses  $\mathbf{R}$ , with  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}$  only if  $c \geq r$  and it does have them only if  $\mathbf{A}$  has full row rank,  $r_{\mathbf{A}} = r$ . One such right inverse is  $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-1}$ , the Moore-Penrose inverse of  $\mathbf{A}$  of full row rank.

### Moore-Penrose inverse

An interesting point here is that the expressions for the Moore-Penrose inverse of  $\mathbf{A}$  are not the same in the preceding two cases:

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}' \quad \text{for } \mathbf{A} \text{ of full column rank} \quad (1)$$

and

$$\mathbf{A}^{++} = \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-1} \quad \text{for } \mathbf{A} \text{ of full row rank.} \quad (2)$$

Result (2) is derived from (1) by noting that for  $\mathbf{A}$  of full row rank  $\mathbf{A}'$  has full column rank. Therefore (1) gives  $(\mathbf{A}')^+$  as  $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-1}\mathbf{A}$ . But the transpose of  $(\mathbf{A}')^+$  is  $\mathbf{A}^+$ , so giving (2). Note, too, that the two inverses  $(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1}$  and  $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-1}$  are not the same, not even of the same order and, moreover, when one of them exists the other does not. Thus  $(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1}$  exists when  $\mathbf{A}$  has full column but  $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-1}$  does not; and vice versa for  $\mathbf{A}$  of full row rank.

A general expression for the Moore-Penrose inverse  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{M}}$  of  $\mathbf{A}$  is (Searle, 1982, p. 216)

$$\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{M}} = \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-}\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-}\mathbf{A}',$$

where  $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-}$  is any generalized inverse of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'$  satisfying just the first of the Penrose conditions,  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'$ . It is of interest to see how this reduces to  $\mathbf{A}^+$  for  $\mathbf{A}$  of full column rank. Write  $\mathbf{A}$  as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{KT} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{K} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}$$

for some non-singular  $\mathbf{T}$  and some  $\mathbf{K}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}')^{-}\mathbf{A} &= \mathbf{T}'[\mathbf{I} \quad \mathbf{K}'] \left( \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{K} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{T}\mathbf{T}'[\mathbf{I} \quad \mathbf{K}'] \right)^{-} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{K} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{T} \\ &= \mathbf{T}'[\mathbf{I} \quad \mathbf{K}'] \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{T}\mathbf{T}')^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{K} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{T} \\ &= \mathbf{T}'(\mathbf{T}\mathbf{T}')^{-1}\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}'\mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{T}^{-1}\mathbf{T} \\ &= \mathbf{I}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{M}}$  reduces to  $\mathbf{A}^+$ , as it should:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{M}} &= \mathbf{I}(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-}\mathbf{A}' \\ &= (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A}^+, \end{aligned}$$

because  $\mathbf{A}$  has full column rank. Similarly  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{M}}$  reduces to  $\mathbf{A}^{++}$  when  $\mathbf{A}$  has full row rank.

## LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH A FULL COLUMN RANK MATRIX

Consider linear equations

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$$

for known  $\mathbf{A}$ , of full column rank  $c$ , and known  $\mathbf{y}$ . The general solution is

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{y} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{z}$$

for arbitrary  $\mathbf{z}$ ; and, through the arbitrariness of  $\mathbf{z}$ , it generates all possible solutions (*loc. cit.*, Chapter 9). But, with

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{KT} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{an} \quad \mathbf{A}^- \quad \text{is} \quad \mathbf{A}^- = [\mathbf{T}^{-1} \quad \mathbf{0}].$$

Therefore  $\mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$  and so there is only one solution

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{y},$$

the same for all generalized inverses  $\mathbf{A}^-$ .

One well might ask "What happens if the first  $c$  rows of  $\mathbf{A}_{r \times c}$  (of full column rank) are not linearly independent?" Then  $\mathbf{T}^{-1}$  would not exist. This can be circumvented by using  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{PA}$  where  $\mathbf{P}$  is a permutation matrix, and hence  $\mathbf{B}$  is  $\mathbf{A}$  with its rows permuted to have the first  $c$  rows of  $\mathbf{B}$  be linearly independent. Then, as with  $\mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$  in the preceding paragraph, we now have  $\mathbf{B}^- \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}$ . But with  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{PA}$ ,  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}' \mathbf{B}$  (because  $\mathbf{P}$  is orthogonal) and  $\mathbf{A}^- = \mathbf{B}^- \mathbf{P}$  and so

$$\mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}^- \mathbf{P} \mathbf{P}' \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}^- \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}.$$

What is sometimes puzzling about the  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{y}$  solution is why does  $\mathbf{A} \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{y}$  equal  $\mathbf{y}$ ? It is not because  $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^-$  is an identity matrix, since that is not so. One approach is that without knowing  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$  we do know that  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Ax}$ . Therefore  $\mathbf{A} \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^- \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$ .

Fortunately one does not have to rely on the existence of  $\mathbf{T}^{-1}$  for calculating an  $\mathbf{A}^-$ . The full column rank property of  $\mathbf{A}$  ensures the existence of  $(\mathbf{A}' \mathbf{A})^{-1}$  and so  $\mathbf{A}^- = \mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}' \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}'$  is the easiest calculation and  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A}' \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}' \mathbf{y}$  is the solution of  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$  for full column rank  $\mathbf{A}$ .

#### Example

$$\text{With } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 2 \\ 4 & 1 \\ 7 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

the solution using  $\mathbf{T}^{-1}$  is

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \left( \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 2 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right)^{-1} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ -4 & 9 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix},$$

and with  $\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}'$  the solution is

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\mathbf{x}} &= \mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 146 & 43 \\ 43 & 14 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{195} \begin{bmatrix} 14 & -43 \\ -43 & 146 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 60 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

as before.

### LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH A FULL ROW RANK MATRIX

Consider  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$  with  $\mathbf{A}$  of full row rank represented by  $\mathbf{A}_{r \times c} = [\mathbf{R} \quad \mathbf{RQ}]$  for  $\mathbf{R}$  non-singular of rank  $r$ . On partitioning  $\mathbf{x}$  conformably with the partitioning of  $\mathbf{A}$  we write

$$[\mathbf{R} \quad \mathbf{RQ}] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{y}$$

and get

$$\mathbf{Rx}_1 + \mathbf{RQx}_2 = \mathbf{y}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_1 = \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Qx}_2.$$

Thus for any  $\mathbf{x}_2$ , the solution  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix}$  will satisfy  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$ . Since  $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{RQ}$ , and  $\mathbf{RQ}$  is the notation for the columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  beyond those of the  $r$  columns of non-singular  $\mathbf{R}$ , it is more useful to write

$$\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{R} \quad \mathbf{RQ}] \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_1 = \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{RQx}_2).$$

#### Example

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{A} &= \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} 27 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 27 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} x_2 \right] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ -2 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 27 - 7x_2 \\ 9 - 3x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 + 5x_2 \\ 27 - 13x_2 \end{bmatrix}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus the solution is

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} -9 + 5x_2 \\ 27 - 13x_2 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{with examples} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 27 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 14 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If  $\mathbf{A}$  is such that its first  $r$  columns are not linearly independent, then resequence the columns to have  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AP}$  for  $\mathbf{P}$  a permutation matrix, and  $\mathbf{C}$  having its first  $r$  columns linearly independent. Then because  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$  is  $\mathbf{APP}'\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  which, with  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{P}'\mathbf{x}$ , is  $\mathbf{Cz} = \mathbf{y}$ , obtain  $\tilde{\mathbf{z}}$  as a solution to  $\mathbf{Cz} = \mathbf{y}$  and from that get  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{P}\tilde{\mathbf{z}}$  as the solution to  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$ .

**Example**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{AP}$$

$$\mathbf{z}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \left[ \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 18 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} z_2 \right]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -3 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 - z_2 \\ 18 - 2z_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 - z_2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{z}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 - z_2 \\ 2 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{P}\tilde{\mathbf{z}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 - z_2 \\ 2 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 - z_2 \\ z_2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

with examples  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

## REFERENCE

Searle, Shayle R. (1982) *Matrix Algebra Useful for Statistics*, Wiley, New York.